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XIX. *On a Periscopic Camera Obscura and Microscope.* By  
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Read June 11, 1812.

ALTHOUGH the views, which I originally had of the advantage to be derived from the periscopic construction of spectacles,\* naturally suggested to me a corresponding improvement in the *camera obscura*, by substituting a meniscus for the double convex lens, I have hitherto deferred making it known to others, except as a subject of occasional conversation.

Since in vision with spectacles, as in common vision, the pencil of rays received by the eye in each direction is small, the superiority of that form of glass, which disposes all parts of it most nearly at right angles with the visual ray, admits of distinct demonstration; but with respect to the camera obscura, where the portion of lens requisite for sufficient illumination, is of considerable magnitude, although it is evident that some improvement may be made in the distinctness of oblique images on the same principles, yet as the focus of oblique rays is far from being a definite point, the degree in which it may be improved is not a fit subject of mathematical investigation.

I have therefore had recourse to experiments, in order to determine by what construction the field of distinct representation may be most extended; and, I trust, the result will be acceptable to this Society. I shall take the same opportunity

\* Phil. Magaz. Vol. XVII. Nicholson's Journal, VII. 143.

to describe an improvement in the construction of the simple microscope, which may also be termed periscopic, as the object of it is to gain an extension of the field of view, upon the same principles as in the preceding instances, namely, by occasioning all pencils to pass as nearly as may be at right angles to the surfaces of the lens. The mode, however, in which this is effected is apparently somewhat different in the practical execution.

In the common *camera obscura*, where the images of distant objects are formed on a plane surface to which the lens is parallel, if the surfaces of the lens be both convex, and equally curved (as in fig. 1); and if the distance of the lens be such, that the images formed in the direction of its axis CF be most distinct, then the images of lateral objects are indistinct in a greater or less degree, accordingly as they are more or less remote from the axis. The causes of this indistinctness may be considered as twofold; for in the first place, all parts of the plane, excepting the central point, are at a greater distance from the centre of the lens than its principal focus; and secondly, the point *f*, to which any pencil of parallel rays passing obliquely through the lens are made to converge, is less distant than the principal focus. On this account, it is in general best to place the lens at a distance somewhat less than that which would give most distinctness to the central images, because in that case a certain moderate extension is given to the field of view, from an adjustment better adapted to lateral objects, without materially impairing the brightness of those in the centre. The want of distinctness, however, is even then only diminished in degree, but is not remedied.

The construction, by which I propose to obviate this defect,

is represented in the second figure, in which are seen the essential parts of a periscopic camera in their due proportion to each other. The lens is a meniscus, with the curvatures of its surfaces about in the proportion of two to one, so placed that its concavity is presented to the objects, and its convexity toward the plane on which the images are formed. The aperture of the lens is four inches, its focus about twenty-two. There is also a circular opening, two inches in diameter, placed at about one-eighth of the focal length of the lens from its concave side, as the means of determining the quantity and direction of rays that are to be transmitted.

The advantage of this construction over the common camera obscura is such, that no one who makes the comparison, can doubt of its superiority ; but the causes of this may require some explanation. It has been already observed, that by the common lens, any oblique pencil of rays is brought to a focus at a distance less than that of the principal focus. But in the construction above described, the focal distance of oblique pencils is not merely as great, but is greater than that of a direct pencil. For since the effect of the first surface is to occasion divergence of parallel rays, and thereby to elongate the focus ultimately produced by the second surface, and since the degree of that divergence is increased by obliquity of incidence, the focal length resulting from the combined action of both surfaces will be greater than in the centre, if the incidence on the second surface be not so oblique as to increase the convergence. On this account, the opening E is placed so much nearer to the lens than the centre of its second surface, that oblique rays Ef, after being refracted at the first surface, are transmitted through the lens nearly in the direction of its

shorter radius ; and hence are made to converge to a point so distant that the image (at  $f$ ) falls very nearly in the same plane with that of an object centrally placed.

In the use of spectacles by long-sighted persons, the course of the rays in the opposite direction is so precisely similar, that the same figure might serve to illustrate the advantages of the periscopic construction. For the purpose of seeing the extended page of a book (as at AB) with least fatigue to the eye, that form of lens will be most beneficial, which renders the rays received from each part of its surface parallel ; and this is effected by the exact counterpart to the preceding arrangement ; for in this case the opening E represents the place of the eye receiving parallel rays from the lens in each direction, instead of transmitting them from a distance towards it.

There is, however, this difference between the two cases, that in the camera obscura a much larger portion of the lens is required to conspire in giving a distinct image of any one object ; so that the conformation best adapted for lateral objects, would not be consistent with distinctness at the centre ; and hence arises a limit to the application of the principle. On the common construction, the whole lens is so formed as to give brilliancy and distinctness at the centre alone, without regard to lateral objects. In adopting such a deviation from the customary form, as I propose, in favour of a more extended view, some diminution of the aperture is required in order to preserve the desired distinctness at the centre. In my endeavours to ascertain the most eligible form of meniscus for this purpose, I have assumed sixty degrees to be the field of view required. But when so large a field is not wanted,

then a lens that is less curved will be preferable; and the proportion of the radii must be varied according to the angular extent intended to be included.

For the purpose of estimating by what combination of radii any required focal length may be given to a meniscus, I have contrived a diagram by which very much labour of computation may be saved, as a very near result may be obtained by mere inspection. This contrivance is founded on the well known formula for the focal length of any lens  $F = \frac{mrR}{R \pm r}$ :  $m$  being a certain multiple obtained by dividing the sine of refraction by the difference of the sines of incidence and refraction. Hence, in applying this formula to the meniscus,  $F : R :: mr : R - r$ . In fig. 3, lines expressive of these quantities are so arranged, that by assuming any point  $F$  corresponding to the focal length desired, and drawing a line  $FR$  through a point  $R$  indicating any supposed length of the greater radius, the corresponding length of the other radius will be found where the line drawn intersects the middle line in the diagram.

In laying down these lines, the length and position of  $AF$  and  $AR$  were assumed at pleasure; and they were divided into any number of equal parts. But the position and length of the middle line  $Ax$  was adapted with care to the refractive power of plate glass in the following manner. Since  $m = \frac{1}{1.505 - 1} = 1.98$ , a line  $BC$  was drawn from the point 10 in the line  $AR$ , parallel to  $AF$ , and equal to 19.8 divisions of the primary lines; so that if  $r$  be = 10, then the line  $BC = mr$ . The distance  $AC$  being then divided into ten equal parts, with their subdivisions, afforded the means of continuing the

same scale to any desired length. Since the first line BC was laid down parallel to AF, and equal to  $mr$ , any other lines drawn through corresponding numbers 7 and 7, 8 and 8, &c. will be also parallel, and by preserving due proportion, will correctly represent  $mr$ . Hence in all positions of the line FR, the same similarity of triangles obtains, and the same proportion of F : R ::  $mr$  : R - r; and consequently the focal length, corresponding to any assumed radii, is truly ascertained.

For the purpose of duly proportioning the curvatures of flint-glass, a second line Ay might be laid down in a mode similar to the preceding, by adapting the multiple  $m = \frac{1}{1,58-1} = \frac{19}{11}$  to the different density of this glass.

With respect to the construction of a microscope on peris-  
copic principles, I believe the contrivance to be equally new  
with the former, and equally advantageous. The great desideratum in employing high magnifiers is sufficiency of light;  
and it is accordingly expedient to make the aperture of the  
little lens, as large as is consistent with distinct vision. But if  
the object to be viewed, is of such magnitude as to appear  
under an angle of several degrees on each side of the centre,  
the requisite distinctness cannot be given to the whole surface  
by a common lens, in consequence of the confusion occasioned  
by oblique incidence of the lateral rays, excepting by means  
of a very small aperture, and proportionable diminution of  
light.

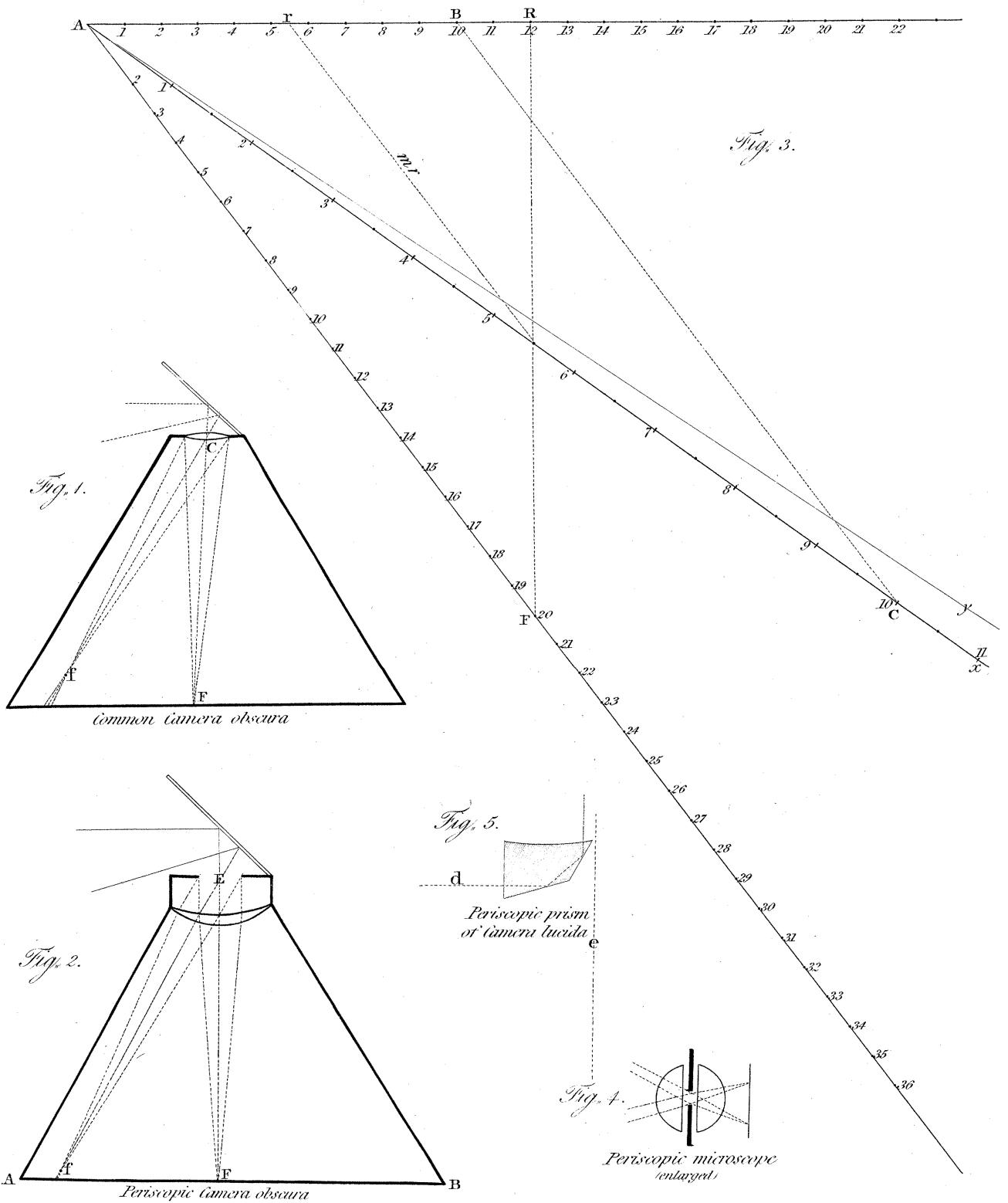
In order to remedy this inconvenience, I conceived that the perforated metal, which limits the aperture of the lens, might be placed with advantage in its centre; and accordingly I procured two plano-convex lenses ground to the same radius,

and applying their plane surfaces on opposite sides of the same aperture in a thin piece of metal (as is represented by a section, fig. 4), I produced the desired effect; having virtually a double convex lens so contrived, that the passage of oblique pencils was at right angles with its surfaces, as well as the central pencil. With a lens so constructed, the perforation that appeared to give the most perfect distinctness was about one-fifth part of the focal length in diameter; and when such an aperture is well centered, the visible field is at least as much as twenty degrees in diameter. It is true, that a portion of light is lost by doubling the number of surfaces; but this is more than compensated by the greater aperture, which, under these circumstances, is compatible with distinct vision.

Beside the foregoing instances of the adaptation of perisopic principles, I should not omit to notice their application to the camera lucida; as there is one variety in its form, that was not noticed in the description which I originally gave of that instrument.\*

In drawing, by means of the camera lucida, distant objects are seen by rays twice reflected (*d*, fig. 5), at the same time and in the same direction that rays (*e*) are received from the paper and pencil by the naked eye. The two reflections are effected in the interior of a four-sided glass prism, at two posterior surfaces inclined to each other at an angle of 135 degrees. In the construction formerly described, the two other surfaces of the prism are both plane, through which the rays are simply transmitted at their entrance and exit. But since an eye that is adjusted for seeing the paper and pencil, which are at a short distance, cannot see more distant objects dis-

\* Nicholson's Journal, XVII. p. 1. Phil. Magaz. XXVII. p. 343.



tinctly without the use of a concave glass, it may be assisted in that respect by a due degree of concavity given to either, or to both the transmitting surfaces of the prism. It is, however, to the upper surface alone that this concavity is given; for since the eye is then situated on the side toward the centre of curvature, it receives all the benefit that is proposed from the periscopic principles.